

11. *Personality, Perception, Attitudes, Emotions, Group Dynamics, Power and Politics*

11.1 Personality

Concept of Personality

“Personality is a set of characteristics and tendencies that determine those commonalities and differences in the behaviour (thoughts, feelings, and actions) of people that have continuity in time and that may not be easily understood as the sole result of the social and biological pressures of the moment.”

Personality Theories



(i) Psychoanalytic Theory : Psychoanalytic theory is based on the notion that man is motivated more by unseen forces than he is controlled by conscious and rational thought.

1. **The Id :** The id is the source of psychic energy and seeks immediate gratification for biological or instinctual needs.
2. **The Ego :** The ego is the conscious and logical part of the human personality and is associated with the reality principle.
3. **The Super Ego :** The super ego represents social and personal norms and serves as an ethical constraint on behaviour.

(ii) Socio-psychological Theory : Socio-psychological personality theory recognises the interdependence of the individual and society. The individual strives to meet the needs of the society, while society helps the individual to attain his goal.

(iii) Trait Theory : Trait factor theory presents a quantitative approach to the study of personality. This theory postulates that an individual's personality is composed of definite predispositional attributes called traits. A trait may be defined as any distinguishable, relatively enduring way in which one individual differs from another. Thus, traits can be considered as individual variables. There are basically three assumptions of this theory.

1. Traits are common to many individuals and vary in absolute amounts between individuals.
2. Traits are relatively stable and exert fairly universal effects on behaviour regardless of the environmental situation. Thus, a consistent functioning of personality variables is predictive of a wide variety of behaviours.
3. Traits can be inferred from the measurement of behavioural indicators.

(iv) Self Theory : The psychoanalytic, socio-psychological, and trait theories of personality represent the more traditional approaches to explaining the complex human personality. Self theory, also termed as organismic or field theory, emphasises the totality and interrelatedness

of all behaviours. This approach treats the organism as a whole to a greater degree than do any of the other theoretical formulations. There are four factors in self concept.

1. **Self-image** : The self-image is the way one sees oneself.
2. **Ideal-self** : The ideal-self denotes the way one would like to be.
3. **Looking glass-self** : The looking glass-self is the perception of a person about how others are perceiving his qualities and characteristics.
4. **Real-self** : The real-self is what one really is.

Personality Development

Human personality development is a continuous process. It starts since the child is in fetal stage. After birth, the child develops and learns and this process continues throughout his life. Therefore, personality development can be seen through different stages of age of an individual. At each stage, a person develops different aspects of personality. These stages have been described differently by different personality theorist. These descriptions may be classified into:

1. Freudian stages
2. Neo-Freudian stages-Erikson's psychological stages.

Freudian Stages

According to Freud, personality develops as a result of interaction of four main sources of stress. These are physical growth process, frustration, conflicts, and threats. These sources affect differently at each stage of the life of a person and these stages can be classified into five categories.

1. Oral Stage
2. Anal Stage
3. Phallic Stage
4. Latency Stage
5. Genital Stage

Neo-Freudian Theory : Modern psychologists do not agree on the over-emphasis of sexual instincts as determinants of personality development as identified by Freud. Prominent among these psychologists are Jung, Adler, Horney, Fromm, and Erikson.

Erikson's Psychological Stages

While formulating his stage theory of personality, Erikson has felt that relatively more attention should be given to the social rather than the sexual adaptations of the individuals.

Table : Erikson's Psychological Stages

Stage	Basic Virtue	Age	Psychological Crisis
1	Hope	0 - 1½	Trust Versus Mistrust
2	Will	1½ - 3	Autonomy Versus Doubt
3	Purpose	3 - 5	Initiative Versus Guilt
4	Competency	5 - 12	Industry Versus Inferiority
5	Fidelity	12 - 18	Identity Versus Confusion
6	Love	18 - 40	Intimacy Versus Isolation
7	Care	40 - 65	Generativity Versus Stagnation
8	Wisdom	65 +	Integrity Versus Despair

Determinants of Personality

Personality represents a process of change and it relates to the psychological growth and development of individuals.

For the purpose of analysis, these can be classified into four broad categories.

1. Biological factors,
2. Family and social factors,
3. Cultural factors, and
4. Situational factors.

The impact of these factors on the personality may be seen from Figure.

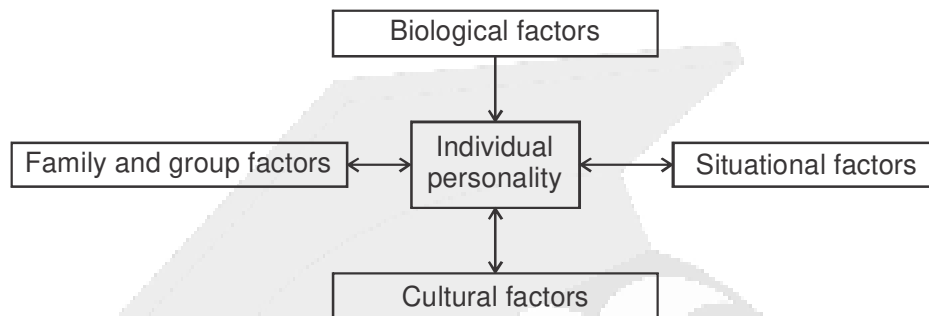


Fig. : Determinants of Personality

Biological Factors

1. Heredity
2. Brain
3. Physical Features

Family and Social Factors

1. Home Environment
2. Family Members
3. Social Groups

Organisational Applications of Personality

Understanding of personality has a number of implications for managing the organizations effectively. These implications are in the area of matching jobs and individuals, designing motivation system, and designing control system.

1. **Matching Jobs and Individuals :** Every job in the organisations requires some specific characteristics of the job performer and one of the basic characteristics is personality of the job performer. An organisation can do well if it is able to match the jobs and individuals, that is, the personality of the job performer matches with the requirement of the job.
2. **Designing Motivation System :** All people cannot be motivated by offering the same incentives because of their personality differences. Some people may be motivated by offering financial incentives; some people may not react so favourably to such offers. They may attach more importance to non-financial incentives.
3. **Designing Control System :** In order to ensure that people contribute in the organisation in desired way, a control system is developed. Such a system may be in the form of tight control leaving no discretion to the people or may provide flexibility.



Did You Know ?

Johari Window : Johari Window is a tool is used to improve the understanding between individuals. Using this tool one build trust with others by disclosing information about him and with the help of feedback from others, one can learn about himself and come to terms with personal issues.

11.2 Perception

Concept of Perception

Perception is the process of selecting, organising, and interpreting or attaching meaning to the events happening in the environment.

“Perception may be defined as a process by which individuals organise and interpret their sensory impressions in order to give meaning to their environment.”

Perceptual Process

Perception is a process consisting of several subprocesses. We can take an input-throughput-output approach to understand the dynamics of the perceptual process.

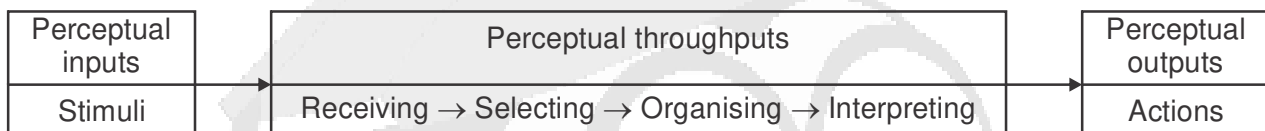


Fig. : Simplified Process of Perception

Managerial Applications of Perception

In an organisational setting, perception is important in various activities. However, there are three major areas which require special attention so far as the perceptual accuracy is concerned. These are: interpersonal working relationship, selection of new employees, and performance appraisal.

1. Interpersonal Working Relationship
2. Selection of Employees.
3. Performance Appraisal

Developing Perceptual Skills

Looking into the need for correct perception, it is imperative that people in the organisation develop skills to perceive correctly. For this purpose, various attempts can be made. Following attempts can be made to have better perception.

1. Perceiving Oneself Accurately
2. Enhancing Self-concept
3. Having Positive Attitudes
4. Being Empathic
5. Communicating More Openly
6. Avoiding Common Perceptual Distortions

11.3 Attitudes

Concept of Attitude

“Attitude is a mental and neural state of readiness organised through experience, exerting a directive or dynamic influence upon the individual’s response to all objects and situations with which it is related.”

An attitude has the following features :

1. Attitudes affect behaviour of an individual by putting him ready to respond favourably or unfavourably to things in his environment.
2. Attitudes are acquired through learning over the period of time. The process of learning attitudes starts right from childhood and continues throughout the life of a person.
3. Attitudes are invisible as they constitute a psychological phenomenon which cannot be observed directly. They can be observed by observing the behaviour of an individual.
4. Attitudes are pervasive and every individual has some kind of attitudes towards the objects in his environment. In fact, attitudes are forced in the socialisation process and may relate to anything in the environment.

Attitudes Relevant for Organisational Behaviour

Organisational members, as employees, may develop attitudes about various aspects of organisational functioning like their salary, promotion possibilities, employee benefits, their superiors, and so on. Though all these attitudes are important for the behaviour of the employees in an organisation, specially the employee attitudes towards the following aspects are more important:

1. Job satisfaction.
2. Job involvement.
3. Organisational commitment.

Job Satisfaction : Job satisfaction reflects the extent to which employees find gratification or fulfillment in their work.

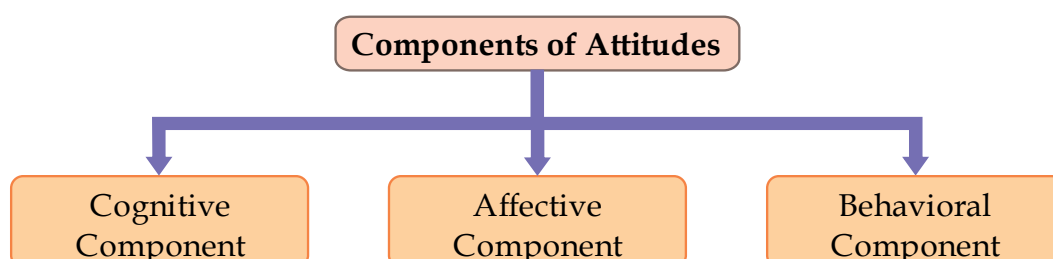
Job Involvement : Attitudes of employees towards job involvement are important for organisational effectiveness. Job involvement is the degree to which employees immerse themselves in their jobs, invest time and energy in them, and view work as a central part of their overall lives.

Effects of Employee Attitudes

Attitudes are reasonably good predictors of behaviour, as discussed earlier. Positive job attitudes help predict constructive behaviours; negative job attitudes help predict negative behaviours.

1. Employee Performance
2. Employee Turnover
3. Absence and Tardiness
4. Violence

Components of Attitudes



1. Cognitive Component : It is the belief segment of an attitude. When someone forms an opinion or perception about any person, object, or situation; the cognitive component comes into play. The opinion may be favorable or unfavorable, positive or negative. For example, if a person says "Life is unfair", he's iterating his opinion about how he perceives life is.

2. Affective Component : It is the feeling segment of an attitude. When someone attaches his/her emotions to the opinion that has been formed about any person, object, or situation; the affective component comes into play. For example, if a person says "I hate the fact that life is unfair", he's connecting an emotion through hatred, to his opinion of life being unfair.

3. Behavioral Component : As the word itself suggests, it's the behavior segment of an attitude. When a person attaches a desire to behave or act in a certain way based on the emotions he has attached to the opinion about any person, object, or situation; the behavioral component comes into play. For example, if a person says "I am going to hurt myself and others if life doesn't stop being unfair to me", he's reflecting a desire to act by hurting himself and others based on how he perceives life to be and the emotions he has attached to this perception.

11.4 Emotions

An emotion is a natural instinctive state of mind deriving from one's circumstances, mood or relationship with others.

Some Positive Emotions : Love, Appreciation, Happiness, Hope, Enthusiasms, Confidence, Gratitude, Patient, Trust, Vulnerable, Optimistic, Appreciative.

Some Negative Emotions : Fear, Anger, Guilt, Depression, Jealousy, Anxiety, Resentment, Envy, Frustration, Shame, Offended, Regret, Resentul, Sad, Worried.

Emotions Consists of

Subjective Feeling : That is how the individual interprets what they are feeling at any point. These are inner personal experiences. Subjective feelings in response to an emotion cannot be readily observed.

Expressive Behaviour : This refers to the outward signs that an emotion is being experienced. Such behaviour can be intentional or unintentional and includes facial expressions as well as body language.

Physiological Responses : This involves bodily changes which occur when we experience an emotion. This involves the operation of the brain as well as the autonomic nervous system and it also involves the cells in our body. It is often our awareness of the arousal that makes us suddenly aware that we are experiencing an emotion.

Functions of Emotions

Arousal : Emotions arouse us to move and take action.

Motivation : Emotions motivate people to engage in actions that are important for survival. For e.g. : 'disgust' (an emotion) motivates us to avoid dangerous or harmful things such as rotten food. 'excitement' (again an emotion) motivates us to take on situations in which we require energy and initiative like tackling a new career.

Adaptive Functions : Emotional responses provide us with adaptive responses that assist us in coping with particular situations. One researcher who has pushed this line is Ledoux. While his study focuses on fear, he suggests that various emotional responses are designed to ensure we respond in appropriate ways in order to ensure our survival.

Adding Colour to Our Lives : This may not be all that scientific but it does take in the fact that expression of emotions through art, poetry and literature provides us with much that underpins the sense of being human. Along with that, the expression of emotions from day to day with people adds colour too!

Regulating Social Interactions : Identifying the emotions that others are feeling through their facial expressions and body language and tone of voice enables us to work out the way to respond. It regulates how we respond to ours and other people's emotions which enhances social interactions.

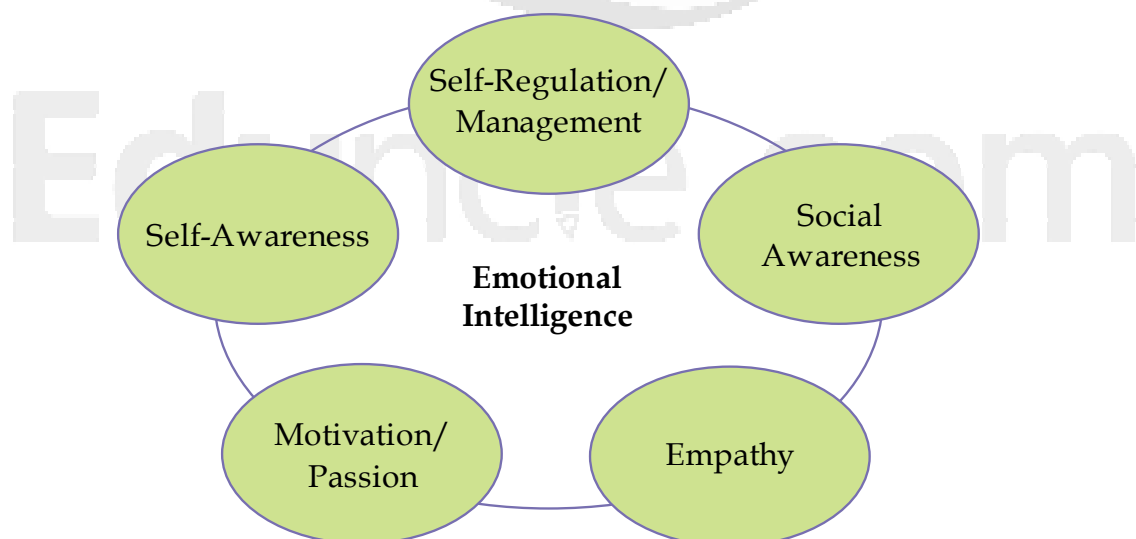
Factors Influencing Emotions

- Personality
- Weather
- Stress
- Social activities
- Sleep
- Exercise
- Age
- Gender
- Health

Emotional Intelligence ?

- Emotional intelligence (EQ) is the ability to identify, use, understand, and manage emotions in positive ways to relieve stress, communicate effectively, empathize with others, overcome challenges, and defuse conflict.
Emotional intelligence impacts many different aspects of your daily life, such as the way you behave and the way you interact with others.
- If you have a high emotional intelligence you are able to recognize your own emotional state and the emotional states of others and engage with people in a way that draws them to you. You can use this understanding of emotions to relate better to other people, form healthier relationships, achieve greater success at work, and lead a more fulfilling life.

Attributes of Emotional Intelligence



- **Self-awareness** : People with high emotional intelligence are usually very self aware. They understand their emotions, and because of this, they don't let their feelings rule them. They're confident – because they trust their intuition and don't let their emotions get out of control.
They're also willing to take an honest look at themselves.
They know their strengths and weaknesses, and they work on these areas so they can perform better. Many people believe that this self-awareness is the most important part of emotional intelligence.
- **Self-management** : This is the ability to control emotions and impulses. People who self-regulate typically don't allow themselves to become too angry or jealous, and they don't make impulsive, careless decisions. They think before they act. Characteristics of self-regulation are thoughtfulness, comfort with change, integrity, and the ability to say no.
- **Social awareness** : You can understand the emotions, needs, and concerns of other people, pick up on emotional cues, feel comfortable socially, and recognize the power dynamics in a group or organization.
- **Empathy** : This is perhaps the second-most important element of emotional intelligence. Empathy is the ability to identify with and understand the wants, needs, and viewpoints of those around you. People with empathy are good at recognizing the feelings of others, even when those feelings may not be obvious. As a result, empathetic people are usually excellent at managing relationships, listening, and relating to others. They avoid stereotyping and judging too quickly, and they live their lives in a very open, honest way.
- **Motivation** : People with a high degree of emotional intelligence are usually motivated. They're willing to defer immediate results for long-term success. They are highly productive.

Emotional Intelligence Importance

It's not the smartest people that are most successful in life. There are many people who are academically brilliant and yet are socially unsuccessful at work or in their personal life. Intellectual intelligence or IQ isn't enough to be successful in life. IQ can help you get into college but it's EQ that will help you to manage the stress and emotions of sitting your final exams.

Emotional intelligence affects:

- **Your Performance at Work** : Emotional intelligence can help you navigate the social complexities of the workplace, lead and motivate others, and excel in your career. In fact, when it comes to selecting job candidates, many companies now view emotional intelligence as being as important as technical ability and require EQ testing before hiring.
- **Your Physical Health** : If you're unable to manage your stress levels, it can lead to serious health problems. Uncontrolled stress can raise blood pressure, suppress the immune system, increase the risk of heart attack and speed up the aging process.

- **Your Mental Health :** Uncontrolled stress can also impact your mental health, making you vulnerable to anxiety and depression. If you are unable to understand and manage your emotions, you'll also be open to mood swings, also leaving you feeling lonely and isolated.
- **Your Relationships :** By understanding your emotions and how to control them, you're better able to express how you feel and understand how others are feeling. This allows you to communicate more effectively and building stronger relationships, both at work and in your personal life.

How Does Emotional Intelligence Help Us?

- Identifying emotions provides awareness of emotions and the ability to accurately read other people's emotions. Using emotions provides a means to generate ideas, feeling, or a team spirit. Understanding emotions offers insights into what motivates people and others' points of view. Finally, managing emotions allows you to stay open to your emotions, which have valuable information, and use them constructively.
- There is evidence to suggest that emotionally intelligent leadership is the key to creating a work climate in which employees are nurtured and encouraged to do their best.
- In a study a Johnson & Johnson, high performing managers had higher levels of self-awareness, self, management capability, social skills, and organizational savvy which are all considered part of emotional intelligence and are learned responses that are needed for superior leadership.
- Several researchers have successfully demonstrated that emotions are related to several of the key issues in leadership. Several quantitative and qualitative studies have provided evidence that empathy is an important trait that predicts and plays a role in leadership emergence.

11.5 Group Dynamics

Concept of Group Dynamics

The term group dynamics contains two terms: group and dynamics. Group is basically a collectivity of two or more persons. Dynamics comes from Greek work meaning force.

“The social process by which people interact face to face in small groups is called group dynamics.”

Concept of Group

Following features of the group can be identified.

1. Two or More Persons
2. Collective Identity
3. Interaction
4. Shared Goal Interest

Theories of Group Formation

1. Propinquity Theory
2. Homan's Theory
3. Balance Theory
4. Exchange Theory

1. Propinquity Theory : The most basic theory explaining affiliation is propinquity. This interesting word simply means that individuals affiliate with one another because of spatial or geographical proximity. In an organisation employees who work in the same area of the plant or office or managers with offices close to one another would more probably form into groups than would those who are not physically located together. There is some research evidence to support the propinquity theory and on the surface, it has a great deal of merit for explaining group formation. The drawback of this theory is that it is not analytical and does not begin to explain some of the complexities of group formation. Some more theoretical and practical reasons need to be explored.

2. Homan's Theory : According to George C. Homans, "The more activities persons share, the more numerous will be their interactions and the stronger will be their shared activities and sentiments, and the more sentiments people have for one another, the more will be their shared activities and interactions."

It is a very comprehensive theory and based on activities, interactions and Homan's theory is based on sentiments. These three elements are directly related to each other. The members' activities interactions and of a group share activities and interact with one another not just because of physical proximity but also to accomplish group goals.

The key element is interaction because of which they develop common sentiments for one another. These sentiments gradually get expressed through the formation of informal groups. If any disturbance is caused to any of the three-activities, interactions and sentiments, it is likely to disturb all the others.

Their relationships are shown in the following figure:

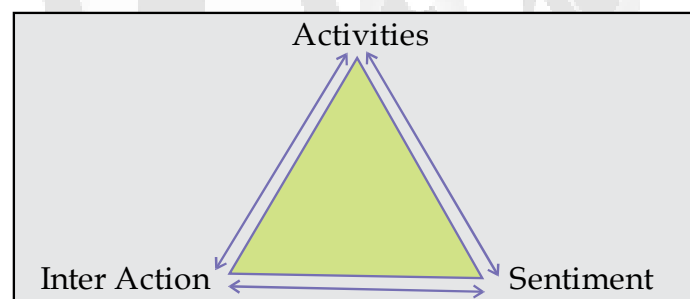


Fig. : The Inter-Dependence of Activities, Interaction and Sentiments

3. Balance Theory : Another very comprehensive theory is a Balance Theory of group formation. This theory as proposed by Theodore Newcomb states that "Persons are attracted to one another on the basis of similar attitudes towards commonly relevant objects and goals. Once a relationship is formed, it strives to maintain a symmetrical balance between the attraction and the common attitudes. If an imbalance occurs, attempts are made to restore the balance. If the balance cannot be restored, the relationship dissolves."

Thus, the balance theory is additive in nature in the sense, that it introduces the factor of balance to the propinquity and interaction factors. There must be a balance in the relationship between the group members for the group to be formed and for its survival. The following figure shows the balance theory.

Individual (A) will interact and form a relationship/group with individual (B) because of common attitudes and values (C). Once this relationship is formed, the participants strive to maintain a symmetrical balance between the attraction and the common attitudes. If an imbalance occurs, an attempt is made to restore the balance. If the balance cannot be restored, the relationship dissolves.

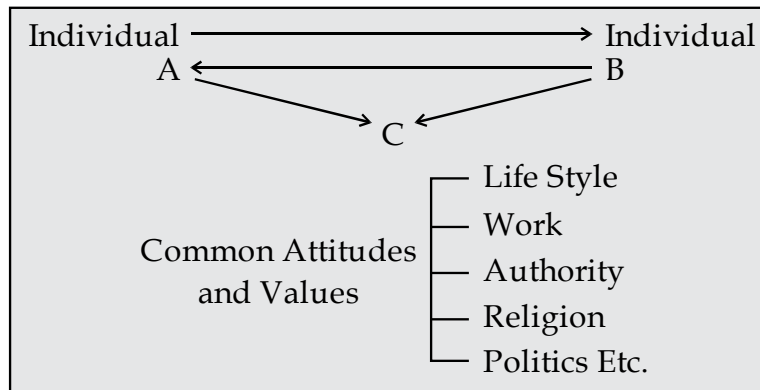


Fig. : A Balance Theory of Group Formation

4. Exchange Theory : This theory is based on reward-cost outcomes of interactions. To be attracted towards a group, a person thinks in terms of what he will get in exchange of interaction with group members. A minimum positive level (rewards greater than costs) of an outcome must exist in order for attraction or affiliation to take place. Rewards from interactions gratify needs while costs incur anxiety, frustrations, embarrassment or fatigue. Propinquity, interaction and common attitudes all have roles in the exchange theory.

Types of Groups

Groups may be classified into different types.

1. **Primary and Secondary Groups :** A primary group is characterised by intimate, face-to-face association and cooperation. The membership of such a group is small and is based on intimate relationship. A secondary group is more formal, general, and remote. The members of the secondary group may not have any interest in the problems and pleasures of others.
2. **Membership and Reference Groups :** A membership group is one to which an individual really belongs while a reference group is one with which the individual identifies or to which he would like to belong. The attractiveness of the reference group makes the norms of that group more attractive to the individual who aspires to it and its norms will, therefore, become more influential in determining behaviour.
3. **Command and Task Groups :** A command group is composed of the subordinates who report directly to a common superior. A task group is comprised of the employees who work together to complete a particular task or projects.
4. **In-Groups and Out-Groups :** The in-group represents a clustering of individuals holding prevailing values in a society or, at least, having a dominant place in social functioning. The out-group is the conglomerate looked up as subordinate or marginal in the society.

Formal and Informal Groups

There may be two types of groups which are classified on the basis of structuring. These are formal and informal. Formal groups are created and maintained to fulfil specific needs or tasks which are related to the total organisational mission. Thus, these are consciously and deliberately created. Such groups may be either permanent in the form of top management team such as board of directors or management committees, work units in the various departments of the organisation, staff groups providing specialised services to the organisation,

and so on, or the formal groups may be constituted on temporary basis for fulfilling certain specified objectives. When such objectives are fulfilled they disappear. These may be in the form of temporary committee, task-force, etc.

Informal groups, on the other hand, are created in the organisation because of operation of social and psychological forces operating at the workplace. Members create such groups for their own satisfaction and their working is not regulated by the general framework of organisational rules and regulations.

Characteristics of Formal Organisation

1. Organisation structure is designed by the top management to fulfil certain requirements—performance of necessary activities thereby achieving organisational goals.
2. Organisation structure is based on the principles of division of labour and efficiency in operations.
3. Organisation concentrates more on the performance of objects (conglomerate of activities) and not on the individuals performing the jobs.
4. The authority and responsibility assigned to each job have to be adhered to by the job holders. Based on the concept of authority and responsibility, people are placed in hierarchy, and their status is determined accordingly.
5. Coordination among members and their control are well specified through processes, procedures, rules etc.

Characteristics of Informal Organisation

1. Informal organisation is a natural outcomes at the workplace. It is not designed and planned.
2. Informal organisation is created on the basis of some similarity among its members. The basis of similarity may be age, sex, place of origin, caste, religion, personality characteristics, likings/dislikings, etc.
3. Membership in an informal organisation is voluntary. A person may become member of several informal organisations at the same time.
4. Behaviour of members of the informal organisation is coordinated and controlled by group norms and not by the norms of the formal organisation.

Group Development

Groups generally pass through a standardised sequence of their evolution. This sequence is known as five-stage model of group development.

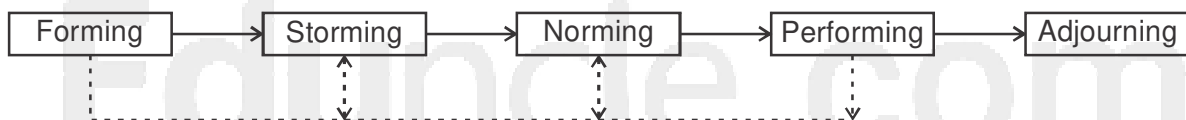


Fig. : Five-Stage Model of Group Development

These typical stages of group development are below.

- | | |
|---------------|---------------|
| 1. Forming | 2. Storming |
| 3. Norming | 4. Performing |
| 5. Adjourning | |

Group Decision Making

Group decision making is an activity based on the old adage “two heads are better than one.” It permits many persons simultaneously to interact and to arrive at a decision. Thus, group decision making has the following features:

1. There are atleast two decision makers acting jointly on the issue under decision making. The number of decision makers in a group can be more than two. However, the number of group members is kept upto manageable level so that proper interaction takes place among them in order to arrive at a decision.
2. There is active interaction among group members. This is possible through participation in decision making. Thus, participation is the backbone of group decision making.
3. In group decision making, there can be either consensus among the members of the group or the decision can be arrived at through simple majority unless group prescribes any other mode of majority. Consensus implies that all members must agree to the proposed decision, whereas majority vote implies that it is enough for the majority of the group members to agree on the decision arrived at.

11.6 Power and Politics

Concept of Power

“Power refers to a capacity that A has to influence the behaviour of B so that B does something he or she would not otherwise do.”

Importance of Power

Power, either positional or personal, is a crucial factor influencing the behaviour in organisations. It has been compared with electricity in a motor by Hicks and Gullett. The importance of power can be analysed in two ways :

1. **Necessary for Coordinated Activities** : Power is required in the organisation for the effective performance of activities of the people. In its absence, there may be chaos which is undesirable because (i) people become upset and insecure in the presence of chaos, and (ii) chaos precludes the synergistic benefits that are gained from effective organisations.
2. **Basis for Authority and Responsibility** : Power is commonly recognised as the basis of authority and responsibility. In one way, authority can be viewed as one of the prerequisites of power. If the source of authority system in the form of formalisation is traced, it may be found in power. For example, the dominant values of society have become formal authority system, such as laws, social institutions etc.

Power Distribution in Organisation

In an organisation, having hierarchical structure, varying amounts of power shall be bestowed upon certain roles within the system. The higher the level of a persons, the greater is the amount of his power.

The amount of power in an organisation is fixed—a zero-sum game. If one person or group gains in power, another loses. Power pacts are carried out within a fixed amount of framework and it is the framework that changes over time. Discussion of both these factors may clarify the power distribution.

Organisational Factors in Power Distribution

Organisations as social entities participate in power distribution in two ways: structural and functional.

Structural Power : Organisation, structured on hierarchical basis, distributes power according to positions. Role in the hierarchy provides some important power attributes; the most significant being legitimacy. It is quite likely that legitimacy is a more dominant factor in power relationship.

Functional Power : Organisation through its assignment of functions has an important vehicle for allocating its power resources. The allocation of functions largely depends upon specialisation and division of labour. Specialisation creates a pattern of dependence in which each participant in a greater or lesser degree contributes to the organisational objective.

Politics :

Politics is universal phenomenon in organised society. Political behaviour is not limited to those who hold public positions. We can expect political behaviour in every organisation. One survey of 400 managers provides the insight into their views towards organisational politics. To a larger extent, managers agreed that:

1. Politics is common in most organisations.
2. Managers must be good at politics to succeed.
3. Politics becomes more important at higher levels.
4. Politics can detract from organisational efficiency.

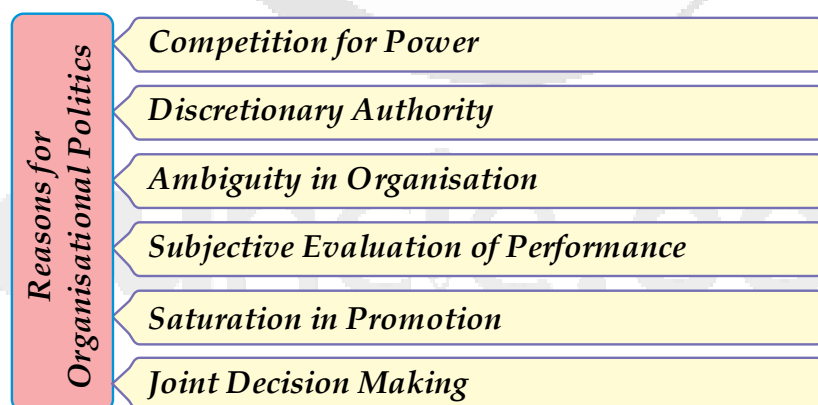
Concept of Politics

"Politics refers to the structure and process of the use of authority and power to affect definition of goals, directions and the other major parameters of the organisation. Decisions are not made in a rational or formal way but rather through compromise, accommodation, and bargaining."

"Organisational politics refers to intentional behaviours that are designed to enhance or protect a person's influence and self-interest."

Reasons for Organisational Politics

Organisational politics is a natural phenomenon of every human group or organisation. When the group or the organisation works for certain time, it tends to generate political behaviour. Some more prominent factors which contribute to political behaviour are as follows:



Management of Organisational Politics

It has been observed above that politics is a features of every organisation because it arises for serving individual needs. Given below are some guidelines helpful in minimising the dysfunctional effects of organisational politics.

1. Much of the political behaviour is caused because of lack of clarity in job definitions, roles, rules, procedures, and authority. Therefore, by prescribing these things clearly, some dysfunctional behaviour can be checked. Clarity in these aspects helps in minimising favouritism, unfairness, nepotism, and opportunity for people to advance themselves at the expense of others and of the organisation.
2. Management can take direct action to curb political behaviour. When politics deters the organisation from the pursuit of its objectives, management action is required. It can curtail offensive tactics when the first signs become evident. Similarly, when people play the politics of being indifferent to the decisions made by them, they should be held personally responsible for the decisions. Even a committee's decision can and should be charged against every member of the committee. As a result, decision makers cannot avoid the responsibility of bad decisions and cannot pass the buck.
3. As far as possible, there should be objective criteria for setting objectives for individuals and departments, and the rewarding of individuals should be solely on attainment of these objectives. When objectives are clearly specified, any deviation from it will be obvious and it will be easier to control. Generally, individuals react to the norms of organisation—that is, what other members can get away with—and to behaviours that are rewarded. If inefficiency goes unnoticed and unpenalised, and rewards are given to those who are near the boss and who look to be busy without any contribution, such pattern of behaviour will be adopted by others also. By penalising negative behaviour and rewarding positive behaviour, members can be motivated to engage in positive behaviour.



Eduncle.com